DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 398 364 CE 070 968

TITLE Diversity in the Workplace [in HRD].
PUB DATE Mar 95
NOTE 39p.; In: Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) Conference Proceedings (St. Louis, MO, March 2-5, 1995); see CE 070 958. For other conference symposia, see CE 070 959-981.
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Cultural Awareness; *Cultural Pluralism; Employer Employee Relationship; Employment Practices; Ethnicity; Ethnocentrism; Group Dynamics; Human Resources; *Labor Force Development; *Multicultural Education; *Performance Factors; *Personnel Management; Program Development; Racial Differences

ABSTRACT

These four papers are from a symposium that was facilitated by Laura Bierema at the 1995 conference of the Academy of Human Resource Development (HRD). "The Status of Valuing and Managing Diversity in Fortune 500 Manufacturing and Fortune 500 Service Organizations: Perceptions of Top Human Resource Professionals" (Sandra J. Johnson) reports a study that established a broad definition of diversity and a rationale for going beyond discriminatory, reactive, legalistic, or nonsystemic approaches to dealing with work force diversity; determined a list of common HRD components; and examined business factors related to diversity development efforts. "A Theory of Diversity" (Christopher Washington) presents a theory that provides a psychological rationale for why diversity is related to performance in groups. "Work Force Diversity in Fortune 500 Corporations Headquartered in Minnesota: Concepts and Practices" (Karin Tomervik) reports a study that provides a conceptual framework for designing, implementing, and evaluating a work force diversity plan. "Race and Ethnicity-Related Cultural Diversity Training Programs: A Typology" (Larry G. Martin) presents a typology that identifies five types of programs: assimilation-acculturation, cultural awareness, multicultural, ethnocentrist, and antiracist. (YLB)

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ED 398 364

AHRD

ACADEMY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

1995 Conference Proceedings

March 2-5, 1995
St. Louis, MO

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[11] **DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE** Facilitator: Laura Bierema, Washtenaw Community College

The Status of Valuing and Managing Diversity in Fortune 500 Manufacturing and Fortune 500 Service Organizations
Sandra J. Johnson, Personnel Decisions, Inc.

A Theory of Diversity
Christopher Washington, Ohio State University

Work Force Diversity in Fortune 500 Corporations in Minnesota: Concepts and Practices
Karin M. Tomervik, University of Minnesota

Race and Ethnicity-related Cultural Diversity Training Programs: A Topology
Larry G. Martin, University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

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The Status of Valuing and Managing Diversity in Fortune 500 Manufacturing and Fortune 500 Service Organizations: Perceptions of Top Human Resource Professionals

Sandra J. Johnson
Personnel Decisions, Inc.

This study established a broad definition of diversity that includes and goes beyond protected-class differences. Second, it established a rationale for going beyond discriminatory, reactive, legalistic, or nonsystemic approaches to dealing with workforce diversity. Third, it determined a list of common HR/HRD components, including types of differences on which organizations focus diversity efforts, diversity development interventions, and diversity performance measures. Finally, it examined business factors related to diversity development efforts.

Due to domestic workforce demographic changes, global competition, and a diverse marketplace, U.S. business and industrial organizations must optimize more effectively the productivity of an increasingly diverse workforce. Many organizations have begun the developmental work of educating and changing the perspectives and behaviors of employees at all levels to value and manage diversity as a business issue. To address productivity goals, many have begun efforts to improve management and development of diverse employees for more diverse organizational leadership.

Although the significance of the need to value and effectively manage a diverse workforce has been acknowledged, little research has yet been done to define diversity development more clearly as a business issue, determine the status of diversity programs/processes, or begin to measure and evaluate their effectiveness in a comprehensive, systematic, and objective manner.

Literature Review

In recent years, the demographics of the U.S. workforce reflect a change in the direction of increasing diversity (Johnston & Packer, 1987). Within the last decade, a number of large companies have responded to this increasing diversity with human resource development programs designed to "manage diversity" or "value differences" in the workplace (Beilinson, 1991; Cox, 1991; Geber, 1990; Jackson, 1991; Lamb, 1991; Purnell & Tervalon, 1991; Robinson, 1991; Sanders, 1991; Savoie, 1991; Thomas, 1990; Walker, 1991a, b).

According to Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand (1994), "dealing with diversity is not a novel issue for U.S. managers. What is novel about modern diversity is that managers will encounter diversity much more frequently and at higher levels both inside and outside their organizations" (p. 769). Thomas (1991) emphasized that diversity in itself is not new, but as a critical business issue it is new. He suggested that three trends converging almost simultaneously have increased its visibility and its salience as a critical factor in the United States workplace: (a) the increasingly competitive global market, (b) the increasingly diverse workforce demographics, and (c) the increasing disinclination of diverse workers to assimilate.

Many individuals involved in valuing and managing diversity efforts have indicated that their recommendations, programs, or processes go beyond compliance with the Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action Act (EEO/AA) to address bottom-line business issues (e. g., Cox, 1993; Cox & Blake, 1991; Elshult & Little, 1990; Morrison, 1992; Sabur, 1991; Thomas, 1986, 1990, 1991).

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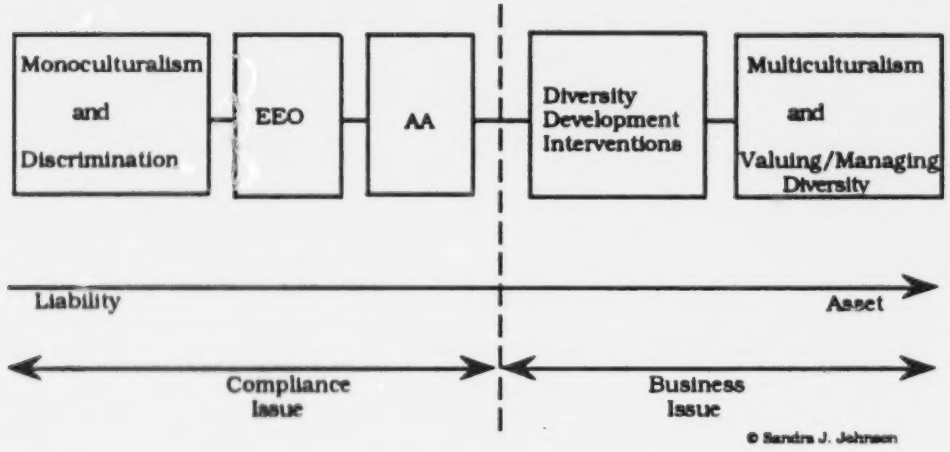
A number of companies have linked valuing diversity to increased productivity. However, there is little evidence that these statements are based on objectively measured bottom-line results rather than opinions or intuitive judgments. If valuing and managing diversity in the workplace is truly a business issue, then it would be important to know more about what it is, define it more clearly, and begin to measure and evaluate its effects in an objective manner. A descriptive research study would help to establish a baseline from which to proceed in this direction.

This study reviewed the literature in regard to the following topics: Diversity and Assimilation, Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action, Diversity as a Business Issue, Diversity as a Human Resource Management Issue, Diversity as a Human Resource Development Issue, and Diversity and Organizational Culture.

Taken from this review, Figure 1 summarizes the perceptions of the history and perspectives on U.S. workforce diversity and the need for a new approach that addresses current U.S. business realities. It conceptualizes the shift from viewing diversity as a liability and a compliance issue to viewing it as an asset and a business issue. Civil rights legislation set the stage; and environmental forces, such as increased workforce and customer diversity and global competition, are precursors that have pressured organizations to change their perspective on diversity.

Figure 1. Historical perspectives on diversity in U.S. business and industrial organizations



Study Design

The main research question for this study was: "What is the status of valuing and managing diversity in large United States business organizations?"

The purpose of the study was to determine the perceptions of top human resource (HR) professionals in Fortune 500 organizations in regard to the history, status, and definition of programs and processes for managing and valuing diversity in large U.S. business and industrial organizations, as well as to identify factors perceived to be associated with their effectiveness.

A survey questionnaire was designed to gather this information. The design of the survey instrument was based on a review of the diversity literature from human resource development (HRD) and related fields and on the conceptual models developed by the researcher from the literature. The instrument was content-validated by a panel of experts, and a pilot study was conducted with a random sample of Minnesota 100 companies.

Reliability was tested using a form of repeated measures. The same question was embedded in two different parts of the questionnaire to check for respondent consistency. It was

also pretested with a class of HRD graduate students. A Pearson product moment correlation was calculated for both, which showed a strong positive relationship in each case (r = .87 for the pretest and r = .84 for the survey).

Data Collection The target population was the Fortune 500 Manufacturing and the Fortune 500 Service companies. A simple random sample of 100 Fortune 500 manufacturing companies and 100 Fortune 500 service companies was drawn, using a table of random numbers.

The final questionnaire was mailed to 100 top HR professionals in the Fortune 500 Manufacturing companies and to 100 top HR professionals in the Fortune 500 Service companies. All questionnaires were mailed at the same time. In addition to the questionnaire, the mailing included a cover letter, a preaddressed and stamped envelope for return mailing, and a summary request form.

The cover letter explained the purpose of the survey, emphasized the importance of the HR professional's assistance to the research, assured confidentiality, and offered to send respondents a summary copy of the results of the survey. The letter was typed on University of Minnesota Training and Development Research Center stationery, and the researcher personally signed each letter as a Research Associate of the University of Minnesota Training and Development Research Center.

Two follow-up mailings were sent to nonrespondents, each accompanied by a revised cover letter, another copy of the questionnaire, a preaddressed and stamped envelope, and a summary request form. A total of eighty responses was received by the researcher as a result of the three mailings, for a 40% response rate. Five unusable responses, for the purposes of this study, resulted in a final response rate of 37.5%.

Because survey response rates from business organizations tend to be low, a phone follow-up survey of a random sample of nonrespondents was planned and carried out to check for nonresponder bias. A comparison was also made between respondent companies' characteristics and manufacturing and service population characteristics, which showed some similar corporate demographics.

Results

The following are major findings of the research survey. They are organized according to the research objectives that guided the study.

Percentage of companies with formal diversity efforts Slightly less than half of all respondents (48%) were from service organizations, and slightly more than half (52%) were from manufacturing organizations. Forty-one percent of all respondents had developed a diversity effort, 35% were at some point in the planning stages, and 24% had no diversity effort. When viewed separately, the majority of organizations in both the manufacturing and the service sectors either already had a diversity effort or were in the planning stages (72% in the service sector and 80% in the manufacturing sector).

Common components of organizations' diversity efforts Of all organizations in both sectors together, 42% had a written diversity policy, 47% had a diversity training program, and 33% had an organization development (OD) effort for diversity.

Of the Fortune 500 companies that had a diversity effort, the greatest percentage of them reported race and gender (97%), age (90%), ethnicity (87%), physical disability (87%), and color (84%) as types of differences explicitly included as components of their efforts. Other types of differences included by approximately 60% to 70% of respondents were religion, language, and sexual orientation.

When asked which development efforts were used to support their organizations' diversity efforts, more than 80% of respondents reported cultural diversity awareness training (84%), training for managing diversity (83%), and training for valuing diversity (81%) as the most extensively used by their organizations.

Other development efforts reported by at least 70% of respondents were: team building (79%), training for continuous quality improvement (79%), management development training (79%), participative management training (74%), equal employment opportunity procedures (73%), interpersonal communication training (73%), career development (70%), and affirmative action procedures (70%). Small group dynamics training was reported by slightly more than half (54%)

of respondents. Lower-scoring development efforts used by less than 50% of responding organizations were: mentoring (39%), enhancing employee networking (39%), cross-cultural training (36%), and conflict management training (31%).

Organizational resources invested in diversity efforts Respondents reported on their organizations' investments of time and money in valuing and managing diversity programs/efforts. In regard to money spent on diversity training and development, amounts reported ranged from $6 to $1,000 per employee per year, with the average of $166. However, these figures represent less than one-third (29%) of the survey respondents.

More than two-thirds of the respondents with organizational diversity efforts were able to give an average annual number of hours of company time that employees spent in diversity training and development. The average per employee per year was 10.8 hours of company time. The number most often reported (mode) was 4 hours and the median was 8 hours.

Survey results also showed the percentage of employees who had been trained in diversity by percentage of companies with diversity efforts. In more than two-thirds (69%) of the organizations with diversity efforts, only 25% or less of their employees had received training or education through their diversity program/process. On the other hand, in slightly more than one-fourth (28%) of the organizations, more than half (51 to 100%) of their employees had received diversity training or education.

Management involvement More employees at supervisory through executive levels received diversity training than did those at nonexempt employee levels. This seems to reflect a strategy for getting top management's involvement, understanding, and support in diversity OD efforts. Survey respondents also reported that the highest levels of resource support and diversity-effort decision-making responsibility came from the management and executive levels of their organizations.

Factors that led to establishing diversity efforts Because valuing or managing diversity is a new approach to dealing with workplace diversity, it was somewhat surprising to discover that a high percentage of companies in the study had either a valuing or a managing diversity program or process, or were in the planning stages.

The study shows that most of this has come about since the Hudson Institute released the 1987 *Workforce 2000* report (Johnston & Packer, 1987) on the changing demographic trends in the U.S. workforce. The great majority (83%) of respondents with diversity efforts reported that their organization's diversity program or process had only come into existence within the last five years. It is probable that the diversity activities of the other 17% of companies, which reported diversity efforts of seven to fifteen years duration, were, at least in part, an outgrowth of equal employment opportunity and/or affirmative action programs.

Development of diversity programs or processes Eighty-seven percent of companies reported that they used in-house resources to develop their diversity programs or processes, and 77% reported using (outside) consultants. Obviously, many organizations used a combination of these two resources. Only 13% reported using packaged programs. The fact that most organizations used in-house resources could be related to their previous experience with EEO/AA efforts. If that is the case, it might interfere with viewing diversity as an asset and diversity development work as a business issue.

Was diversity a business issue? To what degree was valuing and managing diversity perceived to be a business issue? When asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement--"In our organization, valuing or managing diversity is a bottom line issue"--40% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed and less than one-fourth (23%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. The mean response of 3.77 (SD = 1.48) on a six-point Likert-type Scale indicated agreement, though not strong agreement; however, more respondents did agree that their organizations considered diversity a business issue than those who disagreed. It is clear that a number of organizations considered diversity as a business issue and that a smaller number did not. Whether or not there is movement in the direction of viewing diversity as a business issue can only be established by comparing results of future surveys with this one.

Were diversity efforts viewed as effective? Respondents were asked about the importance of the success of their diversity efforts to their organizations, and also about the extent to which their organizations implemented their diversity efforts. Respondents agreed that their organizations considered the success of their diversity efforts to be important (M = 4.53, SD = 1.20, on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 6 = Strongly Agree). However, they indicated that

their organizations' diversity efforts were only somewhat implemented (M = 3.71, SD = 1.16, on a scale of 1= "Not Implemented" to 6= "Extensively Implemented"). There seems to be some indication here that organizations' motivation to be successful in their diversity efforts was stronger than their ability to implement them at this point.

How were diversity efforts monitored or evaluated? The performance measures organizations used most often (Mean of 4.0 or above on 6-point scale) were increased diversity at all management levels, increased diversity at the middle-management level, increased diversity at the top-management level, and increase in employee satisfaction (most likely measured through climate surveys). Increase in employee knowledge of diversity and decrease in employee turnover rate were also somewhat used.

Several evaluation themes emerged from the open-ended responses about how diversity efforts were monitored. The majority of responses were designated as Evaluation Methods, such as surveys, training evaluation, statistical analysis, measurable calendar of objectives, targeted MBOs, attendance at programs, and discussion and response. Of these, surveys and training evaluation were most used. Affirmative Action Goals were another frequently used method.

Several of these methods could be used to help measure different levels of diversity performance. For example, individual diversity performance could be measured through training results evaluation; organizational performance, through climate surveys aligned with organizational goals; or economic performance, through setting financially measurable diversity goals aligned with strategic business objectives. It was important to discover that some organizations were trying to evaluate their efforts in ways that could be used to measure performance and business results, even though it was not known from these data if they were actually doing so.

Conclusions

This research survey study began out of a perceived need for, and an interest in, gathering empirical data for a baseline description of diversity development efforts in U.S. business organizations. The results provide a baseline description now, at a critical point in time for many organizations, and one with which future studies can be compared.

The study establishes some guidelines for organizational diversity development efforts. First, it establishes a rationale for going beyond discriminatory, reactive, legalistic, or short-term approaches to dealing with workforce diversity. It focuses organizations on valuing and managing their diversity as a business issue. It affirms workforce diversity as an asset that will benefit an organization and its employees through organization and human resource development efforts as opposed to discrimination and assimilation.

Second, it recognizes that valuing and managing diversity began largely as a response to the *Workforce 2000* report and actual changing workforce demographics--and their consequences for the workplace. For many, the realization has been that regulatory efforts from outside the organization cannot benefit the organization or its employees to the extent that a managing and valuing diversity approach can. There were also indications that external customer diversity and marketplace competition factors have been motivators for some organizations to pay attention to valuing and managing their internal diversity. Some organizations have based their diversity efforts on a social or ethical vision of doing the right thing, and they have also recognized a need to tie such efforts to their organization's business agenda for the long-term stability and culture change needed to support ongoing diversity development work.

Third, the study establishes a broad definition of diversity that includes and goes beyond protected-class differences, because *all* employees bring their differences, including a variety of group-identity differences, to the workplace. A broad definition moves workplace diversity issues beyond an "us versus them" struggle to focus on utilizing and maximizing diversity to accomplish both individual and organizational goals. It provides a superordinate, or overarching, goal for a unifying focus.

Fourth, the study gathers together a list of common components that can be used as HR/HRD guidelines for comparison or development of organizational diversity programs/processes. An example is the list of types of differences on which organizations focus their diversity efforts. It includes both those that are protected-class, compliance based differences (e.g., gender, race, age, and physical disability) and those that indicate a broader definition of

diversity (e.g., sexual orientation, literacy, job function, work style, and family status). Other examples of common components of diversity efforts from the study include types of diversity development interventions (e.g., cultural diversity awareness training, team building, management development training, and training for continuous quality improvement) and types of measures used by organizations to assess their diversity performance (e.g., increased diversity at all organizational levels, increase in employee satisfaction, decrease in employee turnover rate, and increase in profit/productivity).

The study also examines business factors related to diversity development programs/processes, such as the level and importance of management involvement and support, the investment of money and time in employee training, the amount of training received and at what organizational levels, how HRD diversity efforts are monitored and evaluated, and perceived level of effectiveness.

The movement to value and manage diversity in the U.S. workplace is at a critical stage. Some organizations have begun to develop systemic and systematic efforts for valuing and managing diversity. Some organizations have attempted to connect their diversity efforts to organizational needs and business objectives through upfront assessment and developing measures for feedback and evaluation of their efforts at various performance levels. A long-term perspective and integration with other culture change efforts, such as continuous quality improvement, are needed to ensure that diversity will not become another faddish effort.

Recommendations for Practice

Doing the following things may help organizations ensure that their valuing and managing diversity efforts will make a lasting difference--for both the people and the organization; and they can provide information for theory-building and research in the field: (a) assessing organizational readiness and needs before beginning; (b) thinking and planning long-term, system-wide, and systematically; (c) aligning diversity efforts with strategic business objectives; (d) integrating diversity efforts with other large-scale organizational change efforts; and (e) measuring performance results against program/process objectives and strategic organizational goals.

These would be important whether the diversity development efforts are top-down or bottom-up. It could mean the difference between a faddish program that is dropped or left unsupported in times of crisis or changes, such as mergers and downsizing, and an effective transformational change process for valuing and managing diversity that is connected to performance. As both researchers and practitioners have begun to realize, the ultimate goal of diversity development work is to release the potential of *all* employees to work together and accomplish the organization's goals, through understanding and managing differences.

Recommendations for Research

Although a limitation of this study was its sample size, in terms of amount of data for statistical analysis, a good deal of descriptive data were gathered and analyzed to paint a baseline picture of diversity efforts on which to build. The findings are generalizable to the population studied, that of Fortune 500 manufacturing and service companies. Other business organizations also may find that the results can provide helpful information and guidelines for diversity development work.

How to get a higher response rate from a business population is a problem that needs to be addressed in future studies. One way to do this would be to increase the random sample size greatly. Lists other than the Fortune 500 companies could be considered, as well.

This study could also be done in other countries and the results compared. Nijhof (1993) did a similar study in The Netherlands with a much lower return rate, which necessitated changing the design to a qualitative case study to examine implicit and explicit policy in regard to workplace diversity.

Further descriptive survey studies with a larger sample of companies with diversity efforts are needed to determine possible relationships among variables and to look for significant differences among variables, as well as to compare and verify results. For example, are there differences--on components of diversity training efforts, or effectiveness measures, or whether or

not diversity is considered a business issue--for service and manufacturing organizations, or for the various business sectors within those two categories, or for small, medium, and large sized organizations?

Future surveys can be compared longitudinally for trends and changes in effective workplace diversity development efforts, especially in relation to diversity as a business issue. Results from top executives, line managers, and/or employees at all levels could be compared to those from top HR professionals.

Some of the research questions that guided this study could be pursued using more qualitative methods, such as case study or ethnographic research. For example, how are valuing differences and managing diversity enacted in an organization as a business issue? How are diversity efforts evaluated for performance at different levels? What is it like to be valued and managed for your differences in an organization? Are there clues to links with motivational factors? with productivity?

This study provides a theoretical framework from an HRD perspective to undergird the practice of diversity development.

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A Theory of Diversity

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This paper presents a theory of diversity. This theory provides a psychological rational for why diversity is related to performance in groups. Gruenfeld and Hollingshead's application of integrative complexity to the study of group conceptualization provides the psychological basis for this theory. Within this framework, diversity in group membership is viewed as a source for differentiation in the group perspective. Conceptual links between the perspectives of more than one individual member lead to the emergence of unique, collectively produced ideas, representations, solutions, and arguments. Implications for HRD research and practice are discussed.

Today's work setting is a complex social environment, comprised on culturally diverse individuals working together in groups. Since the Hudson Institute's report, *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers in the 21st Century* (Johnston & Packer, 1987) dozens of books, articles and chapters announced the inevitable demographic changes taking place in the American workplace. The workforce has changed, and continues to change significantly from a number of perspectives: race, age, gender, ethnicity, education, and disability.

The scope of the issue of workforce diversity is enormous, covering most all businesses and industries. The perceived challenges related to increased workforce diversity stimulated greater investment by organizations in diversity initiatives, with the number of diversity experts reportedly increasing fourfold since 1990, and about half of fortune 500 companies have appointed a vice president or senior management level staff person to coordinate diversity efforts (Murray, 1993; Howles, 1994). Despite the increased support for diversity initiatives, they reportedly encounter mixed results, with many efforts falling prey to criticism about their effectiveness in achieving intended goals (Jacobs, 1994; Thomas, 1994; Harte, 1994; Bray, 1994; Murray, 1993; Sowell, 1991; Karp & Sutton, 1993). If supervisors, managers, and HRD practitioners are to make informed decisions about diversity in organizations, then more needs to be known about the performance of diverse work groups.

The purpose of this paper is to present a theory of diversity. This paper is organized to provide a need for the theory, describe the psychological basis for the theory, describe the features of the theory, and present opportunities for research and practice in HRD. The theory is based on my experiences as a "manager" of diverse work groups, as a trainer and consultant, as well as on a review of related literature across many disciplines.

The Need for a Theory

Along with the increase in diversity in the workforce, there has been a corresponding growth in research conducted on the diverse workforce. Researchers representing a number of fields as varied as communications, anthropology, management, and psychology have all attempted to develop useful theory related to workforce diversity within their particular disciplines. Despite the increase in research in this area, little has been done empirically or conceptually, to explain the ways in which workforce diversity contributes positive benefits to organizations. Instead, most research has focused on the challenges related to differences in the workplace. Two streams of research have stemmed from this view. The first focuses on the boundaries between ethnic groups and on the effects of ethnic characterization and

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identification. Research on prejudice and discrimination fall under this category. In the second stream of research, the focus in on the inter-group differences in cultural features and with the resultant interpersonal barriers or conflicts. The study of intercultural communication is an example of this research (For reviews on these streams of research see Ferdman, 1992).

In a practical sense, there are three primary reasons why organizations faced with demographic changes currently undertake diversity initiatives (Henderson, 1994). The first is the affirmative action, or legally driven argument which emphasizes the need for organizations to achieve equality of opportunity in the work environment through the changing of organizational demographics. This approach is compliance oriented, and intended to right previous wrongs. The second is the valuing of diversity, or moral and ethical argument which emphasizes the appreciation of cultural diversity and the creation of an environment in which employees feel valued and accepted. Organizations approaching diversity from this perspective focus primarily on changes in attitude toward women and minorities. Lastly is the managing diversity perspective, which suggests that diversity is linked in important ways to organizational performance improvement (Henderson, 1994; Cox, 1993; and Washington, 1993). Organizations approaching diversity from this perspective work to enhance organizational morale, productivity and benefits. While these views take into account various aspects of diversity in the context of organizations, which provide the current rationale for a variety of HRD interventions around diversity issues in organizations, the picture of diversity in the workforce is incomplete. It remains to be determined whether there is *psychological* support for the notion that cultural diversity in group membership in and of itself contributes to group functioning.

Psychological Basis for the Theory

The idea of group cognition has long had a controversial status in the social sciences (Allport, 1962). A number of theorists have recently argued that people in groups are able to pool their knowledge and cognitive abilities into something that is greater than the sum of its parts (Gruenfeld and Hollinghead, 1993; Levine and Resnick 1993). Resnick (1987) suggests that each persons ability to function successfully at work, depends on coordinated cognitive interactions with others, and that cognitive "products" that emerge cannot be attributed to single individuals. These theorists suggest that, through the course of group interaction, cognition is constructed, shared and distributed (for reviews see Levine and Resnick, 1993).

Gruenfeld and Hollinghead (1993) suggest that groups of individuals with diverse perspectives exchange and mutually "contaminate" one anothers thoughts, knowledge, opinions and values via social interaction, and that thorough these interactions, cognitions develop and change. Shared cognitive products are said to then be produced by social exchanges. This socio-cognitive orientation has produced conceptual properties among which is the notion of integrative complexity and its application to the study of group conceptualization. In order to understand the nature of integrative complexity as applied to group conceptualizations, I will first explain integrative complexity as it applies to individual concept development.

Integrative Complexity In order to fully understand the theoretical position taken here on group conceptualizations, one must first understand the significance of concepts to individual human thinking. Concepts are the stored, organized effects of past experience (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961). In a most general sense, a concept is a schema for evaluating impinging stimulus objects or events (Harvey, et. al., 1961). The relevance of an external object is dependent on the way it is differentiated from other objects in the environment, and functionally compared to internal referents operative at the moment. Concepts, then, represent the joint product of the interdependent operation of situational and dispositional factors. The psychological process through which this interaction finds expression is that of differentiation-integration (Harvey, et. al., 1961).

Differentiation-integration can then be seen as a process by means of which an organism breaks their environing world down into parts and relates them in a way relevant to their motive system and existence (Harvey, et. al., 1961). The resultant or out-growth of this process is the level of concreteness-abstractness a concept attains. Thus, the highly integrated and abstract conceptualizations are considered more complex than the undifferentiated and concrete concepts.

Goldstein and Scheerer's (1941) research highlights the distinction between levels of concreteness-abstractness as it applies to the psychological functioning of individuals. According to Goldstein and Scheerer certain modes of behavior are related to an individuals ability to achieve greater levels of abstraction, which include: shifting reflectively from one aspect of a situation to another; considering simultaneously various aspects; grasping the essentials of a given whole, breaking up the whole into parts, and isolating and synthesizing them; planning ahead ideationally; and assuming an attitude toward the more possible and to think or perform symbolically (Goldstein & Scheerer, 1941 p. 4). It is clear that there is great benefit to an individual who has to ability to differentiate and integrate concepts at a more complex level, given the behavior implications mentioned here.

Integrative Complexity of Group Conceptualization Gruenfeld and Hollingshead (1993, p. 387) proposed that integrative complexity could be useful as a group level construct, by thinking of differentiation and integration as "characteristic of social interchange that may be reflected in shared conceptualizations that groups develop over time." Integrative complexity, then, reflects the "extent to which groups as a whole have adopted or elaborated on the differentiation that exists among members' perspectives and the way in which the diversity of those perspectives have been reconciled" (p.388).

Within the framework of integrative complexity, Gruenfeld and Hollingshead, suggest that each individual member serves as a potential source of group differentiation. Differentiation, as defined in the group context, is the recognition of multiple perspectives on an issue. If a group is faced with a problem, for example, and all members share the same uni-dimensional perspective, then the group perspective will not be highly differentiated. If however, a group is faced with a problem, and the various member perspectives represent more than one dimension of knowledge or opinion about an issue, there is potential for group differentiation. Taking it further, Gruenfeld and Hollingshead state, "to the extent that diverse views are discussed during interaction, group differentiation is expressed, and to the extent that the group adopts differentiated perspectives in their shared conceptualization, group differentiation is manifested" (p. 387).

The process of integration as a group phenomenon, as expressed by Gruenfeld and Hollinghead, is the recognition of conceptual connections, such as tensions and trade offs, among differentiated dimensions. Group integration can be characterized as "the active generation by interacting group members, of new conceptual links--such as integrative solutions, overarching rules, and novel representations--that preserve the validity of more than one of their individual points of view (p. 388)." A group with the ability to achieve higher levels of integrative complexity of group conceptualizations will have expanded performance potential, and may possess adjustment capabilities to the range of decision tasks of considerable importance to an organization.

The process of social interaction in work groups between individuals possessing different culturally-influenced perspectives, influencing group member cognition changes and improving group cognitive products over an appreciable period of time can be best characterized by the process of integrative complexity. No other psychological theory more accurately explains the process contributions of the social interaction of culturally diverse group members. The theoretical refinement offered by the process of integrative complexity leads to the advancement of a theory of diversity in organizations.

Description of the Theory

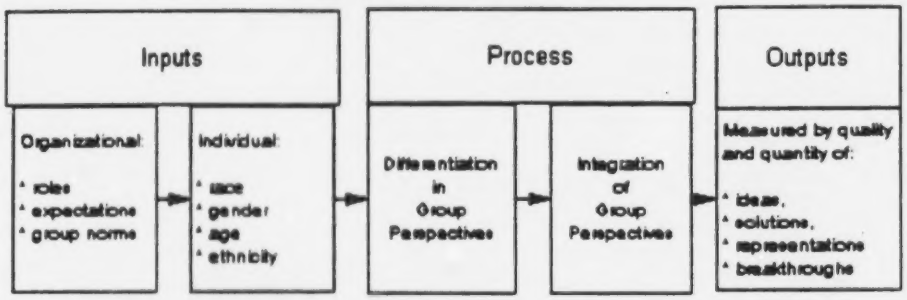
When a group faces a problem, object or event, the perspectives of culturally diverse individuals in the group serve as sources of group differentiation. If individuals possessing different culturally-influenced perspectives openly interact in work groups, then the group perspective will be highly differentiated. If individuals possessing similar culturally-influenced perspectives openly interact, then the group perspective will not be highly differentiated.

There are a number of assumptions that speak to the boundaries of the theory which need to be stated before deriving logical deductions about the theory in operation. First, the theory is limited to situations of employment in organizations. Second it is an assumption that employees have the opportunity to interact with other employees in the same work group and that there is active discussion participation among group members. It is a third assumption of this theory that individuals have the capability to

participate on the issue in question. Lastly it is assumed that group activities are focused on specific cognitive outcomes.

The model illustrated here in Figure 1 represents inputs in the form of organizational culture, group norms, and diversity in work group membership; integrative complexity as characterized by differentiation--integration; and group outputs in the form of unique solutions, ideas, and other representations.

Figure 1. Theory of Diversity



Inputs Inputs are the information and people that will be used to produce the output. In this model there are two forms of inputs: organizational and individual.

Organizational. Alderfer's (1982) concept of embedded intergroup relations suggests that intergroup relations within a given setting cannot be considered in isolation. That is to say, one cannot explain or predict the nature of relations between group members unless we understand the nature of relations within the larger organization. Organizations can vary in the manner in which expectations regarding diversity in the workplace are formally and informally communicated. A related experimental study examined whether people would rate an organization more positively if it had a managing diversity policy (Williams, 1994). Participants in the managing diversity condition rated the organization significantly more positively than did those in the control condition. Consequently, any effort to cultivate diverse work group effectiveness should consider organizational issues, systems and practices which may either support or act against the success of these diverse work groups.

Norms are "rules" of behavior that govern a group: who can do what when (Katz & Kahn, 1978). It has been suggested by Hackman (1976) that most of the "regulating" of group member behavior typically takes place through behavioral norms which are created and enforced by group members. Since group norms are characteristic of the group as a whole, it is important to consider them and their relationship to group products. Groups often apply pressures on their members so as to bring about a uniformity of beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviors. Homogenizing influences on group members can be exerted in both conscious and unconscious ways, in the way of group norms. Alternatively, group norms could encourage support for individuals expressing different viewpoints. Given the variance that the nature, number and complexity group norms can take, it remains a question as to what specific norms are best for diverse groups.

Cultural Diversity in Group Composition. One of psychology's most basic dogmas and pervasive assumptions is the operation of individual differences in all functioning. One of the ways that people can be described as different is by one of the many cultures to which they belong. Jones (1983) defines culture as a configuration of beliefs, values, symbols, and behaviors that are historically-based and that provide a framework for behavior in the future. Cultural diversity, then, can be thought of as the ways that we are different based on our historically-based configurations of beliefs, values, symbols, and behaviors.

Prior knowledge and cultural background are said to greatly influence an individual's interpretation of a given situation and their ability to comprehend it. Schema theory has often been used to explain interpretive and comprehension processes. Schemata are hypothetical mental structures that incorporate general knowledge into an organizational framework (Altarriba & Forsythe, 1993, p. 145). They are thought to be the basic fundamental elements upon which human information processing depends

(Rumelhart, 1980). Since a schema is an organized representation of one's experience, culture can influence the schema one has (Pritchard, 1990).

One study on children from different cultures with the same IQ sores, supported the idea that different cultural groups show systematic differences in patterns of cognition (Bracey, 1991). Work in the area of reading comprehension has also demonstrated the influence of culture specific schemata. Pritchard (1990) for example, found that people reading culturally familiar text incorporated their background knowledge and made more elaborations with the passages. Conversely, people reading culturally unfamiliar text accepted ambiguity more but had more difficulty tying the text to their background. Cultural schemata can also influence one's belief and attitude about information that has been read in a culturally unfamiliar text. Research conducted by Halasz (1991) comparing interpretive differences between American and Hungarians reading short stories concluded that each groups' historical-social experiences constituted their knowledge base or schema, with which they attempted to comprehend the culturally unfamiliar texts that were presented.

Differences in interpretation, as influenced by culture, have been found to impact the workplace in many ways. Holt & Keats (1992) investigated the influence of ethnic cultural background and multicultural interaction on the structure of individual work cognitions. They identified culture-specific achievement structures, and found that variations in work cognition structures among different ethnic groups were explained on the basis of the culture-specific achievement structure. Another study conducted in the workplace points out that men, women, and people of color identify, define and organize their experience in the organization in unique ways (Fine, Johnson, & Ryan, 1990). These researchers concluded that several factors account for these different experiences. The context of organizational life is different for each group. Compared to men, women hold lower level positions at lower salaries and so they see the organization from the bottom. Minority members are fewer in number than their majority counterparts, so they view the organization in isolation. Second, each group appears most comfortable communicating within their own group. Since access to communication networks determines the particular information we receive, different groups receive different information through which to interpret the world. The third suggestion offered is that the cultures of gender and race give unique perspectives on organizing experience.

Process Processes are used to change inputs into outputs. In this sense, the process of differentiation--integration as it relates to group conceptualization will be explained.

Differentiation. As mentioned earlier, differentiation is the recognition of multiple perspectives on an issue.The importance of culture on an individual perspective on any given matter is a potential source of differentiation in a group's perspective. Hanson and Brooks (1994) suggest that cultural frames that affect business are multidimensional, being influenced by societal values, organizational affiliations and occupational alliances. Neck and Manz (1994) suggest that by maintaining their separate belief systems, group members are able to critically examine the decision making process without being influenced to conform to a group view that overwhelms individual viewpoints. They go on to suggest that when members of a group become detached from their own separate identity and viewpoint, their decision-making effectiveness is at risk. Models of cognitive categorization based on individual differences have been proposed to explain the differences in perspectives between an expatriate manager and their subordinate employee, specifically related to the difference in how they collect, process and store information about one anothers behavior (Shaw, 1990). Given these important findings and suggestions, culture diversity should be seen as an important source of differentiation in the group perspective, where individuals are asked to make judgments and/or perform in relation to some situation which draws meaning from their culturally influenced cognitive processes and unique histories.

There are a number of challenges to the expression and manifestation of group differentiation in diverse work groups. First, a group can lose its ability to make use of the cognitive ability of its members and instead seek complacency and complete agreement. One such phenomenon has been described as groupthink. Janis (1983) suggests that people involved in cohesive groups have a tendency to strive for agreement, which may override their efforts to appraise alternative courses of action. Among the reasons cited as conditions which produce or facilitate groupthink were a lack of norms requiring methodological procedures and homogeneity of members' social background and ideology. Janis (1983, p. 175) posits that the consequences of groupthink in decision making groups are: 1) incomplete survey of alternatives, 2) incomplete survey of objectives, 3) failure to examine the risks of the preferred choice, 4) failure to

appraise initially rejected alternatives, 5) poor information search, 5) selective bias in processing information at hand, 7) failure to work out contingency plans. This phenomenon has been empirically investigated under a variety of conditions by other researchers (see Moorhead & Montenari, 1986; Leana, 1985).

A second challenge to expressing differentiation in the group perspective is that of low participation by members of minority groups. Kirchmeyer and Cohen's (1992) and Kirchmeyer's (1993) research on multicultural groups demonstrate a marked difference in the contribution levels of visible minorities in multicultural work groups. Individuals in the cultural minority were also found to be less committed to the group itself. Low scores on communication competence and masculinity, and high scores on femininity were associated both with minority status and contribution level to decision making (Kirchmeyer, 1993). Kirchmeyer concluded that minority members were at a disadvantage in groups dominated by others who: (a) communicated more effectively and appropriately, (b) were more assertive, and (c) expressed less concern for others.

Integration. Group integration can be viewed as the process by which the perspectives of culturally diverse individuals are reconciled. The central question here becomes: Given the pressure toward coming up with a group conceptualization, to what extent does culture uniquely influence the process of integration in diverse work groups? Festinger (1950) theorized that the greater the source of pressure toward uniformity in groups where different attitudes, beliefs and opinions exist, the greater will be the forces to communicate (Festinger, 1950). When people with different perspectives on a problem are working together to come up with a group conceptualization, the communication process gets emphasized, and many behavioral differences may emerge, some of which support the integration process in diverse work groups. An example of this kind of phenomenon was illustrated by Cox (1991) who found that at an individual level, Asian, African American, and Hispanic individuals have a more collectivist-cooperative orientation to a task than do Anglo individuals.

Maintaining a variety of cultural identities may however create communication challenges as culture, affects the work-related values and behaviors of group members (Hofstede, 1984; Jakofsky, Slocum & McQuaid, 1988). Culture itself affects group members' level of participation and openness (Kirchmeyer and Cohen, 1992; Kirchmeyer,1993; Tang & Kirkbride, 1986). A heightened incidence of interpersonal problems and communication difficulties has been associated with groups diverse in membership (Ruhe & Eatman, 1977). Integration of diversity is being emphasized as a mechanism of effective communication for diverse workgroups (Maznevski, 1994). In order to both maintain their unique perspective and identity, and integrate a variety of perspectives through interaction, culturally diverse work groups may have to overcome some of the difficulties that cultural differences can present.

Outputs Outputs are what the group provides as it works to accomplish its goals and purpose. Outputs can be measured in terms of quality and quantity. In the study conducted by Gruenfeld and Hollingshead (1993), conceptual growth was an output which occurred for participants in the study over time. New cognitive products were also group outputs. Gruenfeld and Hollingshead (1993) specifically found that the integrative complexity expressed in groups evolved differently from the integrative complexity of individuals. During the first five weeks of their study, the integrative complexity of group essays was significantly lower than that of the highest complexity individuals, and not significantly greater than that of the average of individual essays. During the last part of the 12 week semester, the level of group integrative complexity increased at a greater rate than either the average or highest individual levels. until it was significantly greater than the average individual levels and not significantly different from the highest individual member (p. 401). Related to task performance, Gruenfeld and Hollingshead suggested that, over time, group members become increasingly able or motivated to generate or recognize diversity among their perspectives and to work at incorporating one another's perspectives when constructing shared conceptualizations.

Presently, little research exists related to culturally diverse work groups, that can be offered in support of this perspective. One study where individuals composed of different ethnic groups were compared to homogenous groups outperformed them relative to solution quality (Ling, 1990). There are, however, a few research articles that support the thesis that heterogeneous groups, if well managed can out perform homogenous groups with various factors being cited including gender, age and race (Shaw, 1981; McGrath, 1984). Research on innovative work groups have identified member diversity as a

factor contributing favorably to the innovation process including stimulating new combinations of facts (Kono, 1988). In support of these outcomes, Kanter's (1983) study of innovation in organizations revealed that innovative companies often deliberately put together heterogeneous teams to nurture creativity and broaden range of ideas. There is clearly a need for more research in this area.

In general, there is evidence that groups do not always perform better than individuals on all kinds of tasks. Hastie (1986) concluded, after reviewing studies of individual vs. group accuracy in judgment tasks, that the relative performance of individual and groups depended on the nature of the task. "Solution demonstrability" has been offered as a critical determinant of a groups ability to develop an adequate shared representation, with groups performing better than individuals when the task has a correct solution that can be readily demonstrated and communicated to members (Laughlin & Ellis, 1986). There are also advantages and disadvantages associated with complex decision strategies (for examination of the guidelines, see Gruenfeld & Hollingshead, 1993).

The relationship between input, process and output are such that: If organizational inputs in the form of roles, norms and expectations are supportive of diversity, and if individuals in workgroups are diverse in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, and age, then the group perspective on a problem or issue will be highly differentiated, resulting in an increase in the quantity and quality of group outputs including ideas, solutions and other cognitive products.

Future HRD Research Issues

Given the increased diversity in the workplace, and the associated challenges and opportunities, research in this area should be of great importance to HRD scholars. Research needs to be conducted in both experimental situations and in work environments on intact groups to test the main principles. Longitudinal research needs to be conducted to measure the influence of differentiated perspectives on individual group member cognitions, and group cognitive ability over time. More specific HRD related questions can be asked related to training, motivation and commitment, and evaluation to name a few.

Training Research Questions Training is the process of transmitting new knowledge, skills and awareness to employees. Training can take different forms and occur at different times in a groups process. Questions in this area could include: What awareness messages foster differentiation in diverse work groups? What kind of training is best for effective group interaction among diverse members? What is the relationship between training and commitment to the group process?

Motivation and Commitment In this sense, motivation and commitment refers to the inclination of people to participate and continue their participation in diverse work groups, or managements inclination to create and maintain diverse work groups. The presence or absence of commitment to group outcomes may determine the extent to which employees participate in group discussions. The presence or abscense of favorable outcomes may determine management's commitment. Questions might also consider: What behaviors constitute a persons level of commitment to the outcomes of diverse work groups? What is the impact of management's commitment to creating diverse work groups or the employees attitude about participating on them?

Evaluation Evaluation can be used to determine if diverse work groups are effective at achieving their intended goals. Evaluation can occur at different times, could serve a variety of purposes, and could involve any number of people. An HRD focus could include questions such as: What are the best ways to evaluate diverse workgroups? What are the cognitive, affective and behavioral affects of having group members participate in the evaluation process?

Conducting research in this area is not without its methodological difficulties. One fundamental question is, how much diversity is enough diversity? Cultural diversity being studied as a variable in work groups is a difficult thing to measure. As Gauvain (1994) points out, there is "nothing psychologically meaningful" about being Euro-American or African American. What is psychologically meaningful is why growing up living one's life as a male, or living one's life as a female, or growing up in a Euro-American community versus an African American community leads to different psychological performance on some dependent measure. In this sense, it is difficult to consider culture in and of itself an effective independent variable. To complicate matters more, some people may identify themselves in

one cultural group, but in reality they may belong to a couple of overlapping cultural groups, or belong to another significant group all together. While each person is a member of a particular ethnic group, he or she has their own individual image of the cultural features -- the beliefs, values, and norms -- that are appropriate to membership in their ethnic group (Ferdman, 1990). These images may differ from the images of others belonging to the same ethnic group. Another issue is that individuals will differ in the degree to which they actually exhibit the cultural features that characterize the group as a whole. Small numbers of people of color in some organizations may prove difficult for comparative statistical procedures, and conclusions drawn from them may violate the assumptions of the statistical tests.

Role of HRD Personnel

HRD should develop programs which educate management and employees about the benefits of work group diversity. Initiatives which encourage groups to search out a variety of perspectives in the group situation, to build on ideas, and to integrate different perspectives will foster the potential offered by diverse work groups. Interpersonal skills training may be necessary to build communication competence and to improve the overall performance of the work group (Kirchmeyer, 1993). Feedback systems should be designed to inform these groups of their performance, and the consequences of their performance on the organization. Team building activities should be constructed and provided for ongoing work groups that have a history of experiencing conflict based on their differences. Appropriate norms and goals should be identified and communicated to these groups in order to provide both guidance and reinforcement.

Conclusion

The world of work can be described by its increasing complexity. New technologies, global markets, and workforce diversity all add to these complexities. The need for organizations to tap into their sources of creativity for their survival and growth under increasingly complex conditions is being stressed by both business professors and corporate CEOs (Vyas, 1994). Burns (1994) suggests that rapid innovation born of employee creativity has become a differentiator for many leading businesses. One such source of creativity and problem solving is the use of culturally diverse work groups.

Presently, very little theory exists to guide practitioners in responding to diversity, and little research has been conducted to date examining the factors relating diversity to performance. The lack of research connecting many of the variables in this model represents an opportunity for scholars in our field. With the theory as a guide, researchers can develop agendas aimed at uncovering new knowledge as it relates to a diverse workforce. In the workplace, HRD practitioners must have high regard for the desired outcomes the system must produce, and must identify effective ways to link diversity to those outcomes. This research area will provide important information to both HR Managers and HRD professionals about ways to best target organizational improvement resources.

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Work Force Diversity in Fortune 500 Corporations Headquartered in Minnesota: Concepts and Practices

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This paper summarizes the findings from a research study on the status of the work force diversity process in Fortune 500 corporations. The research study was a benchmarking study, an inquiry into the policies, practices, and procedures our largest, most successful business organizations are using to address work force diversity. This study provides the reader with a conceptual framework for designing, implementing, and evaluating a work force diversity plan.

The purpose of the study was to provide information on the status of the diversity process in large corporations, to report on the dimensions of the diversity initiatives and programs, and to interpret the dynamics of the corporate response to work force diversity. The study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do human resource managers or work force diversity managers in Fortune 500 corporations headquartered in Minnesota define work force diversity? (What meanings do they ascribe to the term diversity?)
2. How is this definition interpreted and manifested in corporate policies, programs, and practices? (How did the awareness of diversity and organizational responses to it evolve over time?)
3. What are effective strategies for communicating, promoting, and integrating the concept of diversity into all aspects of the organization?
4. How are these efforts evaluated in organizations?

Research Procedures

The researcher used interpretive methodologies with a multimethod triangulation approach to data collection and analysis. This included three kinds of data collection procedures: (a) in-depth, open-ended interviews with human resource managers, directors of work force diversity, or designated persons within corporations with responsibilities for implementation and evaluation of diversity initiatives; (b) direct observation of diversity initiatives; and (c) collection of written documents related to the diversity process within corporations. Twenty-nine formal interviews were conducted with 32 individuals in 26 corporations. Participant responses contained in the verbatim interview transcriptions were content-analyzed guided by the four broad research questions. Field notes from observations and analyses of the related corporate documents provided additional documentation. A variety of assessment and analysis forms were designed to collect and analyze documents provided by corporations. Results were recorded in a series of matrices that rank ordered the corporations according to their ratings on the forms.

Findings

The findings from the study are divided into sections associated with the four broad research questions. The research questions were designed to provide information on definitions of diversity, the evolution of the process within corporations, the implementation of strategies, and the evaluation of those efforts.

Definitions of Diversity Four basic themes related to the definition of diversity emerged from the interview data:

1. Diversity includes a broad range of differences in the work force. These differences include age, disability, education levels, ethnicity, family structure, function, geographic location, race, religion, sexual orientation, style, and values. Definitions are extremely broad and all-inclusive.
2. The meaningful aspects of diversity are how it affects the individual and the organization.

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4. Some formal benchmarking is taking place.
5. The organization is at the beginning of a cultural assessment.
6. They are within the first two years of planning and implementation.
7. The spokesperson lacks knowledge of related diversity issues in other business functions.
8. There is some documentation of the diversity process.

Stage 3--Taking A Stand. Corporations in the third stage of the diversity process were committed to the concept of diversity, articulated the business case for it, and tied community affairs to internal goals. Spokespersons for the corporation were serious about the intent of their efforts. The following statements reflected their general opinions on the diversity efforts within their organizations:

- We believe in it.
- We're doing it.
- We won't be last.
- It's a competitive edge.

In Stage 3--Taking A Stand, corporations were well into the diversity process in their organizations; much of the groundwork had been laid. Four corporations in this stage, in addition to sharing several of the characteristics of corporations in Stage 2, exhibited the following characteristics:

1. Diversity leadership is in the hands of the senior vice president of human resources.
2. Education and training programs are in place.
3. There is a reported CEO commitment to diversity.
4. Formal benchmarking has been done.
5. There is documentation of the process through training modules, employee newsletters, and community relations reports.
6. There has been some senior management training.

Stage 4--Progressing Despite Challenges. Corporations in Stage 4 had established a history and were at a point of reassessment and renewed commitment. Economic and marketplace forces were creating challenges for these organizations. Corporations in this stage had a clear commitment based on several years of initiatives in multiple dimensions of organizational life. Internally structured barriers had been reduced, and awareness of diversity goals was evident organization-wide. The following statements were reflective of organizations in this stage:

- We're continually educating and training.
- We've broadened our support across the organization.
- We reach out to the community and support volunteerism.
- Our financial challenges drain energies and resources.

In the five corporations progressing despite challenges, the spokespersons shared the similar experience of leading diversity efforts in their organization over an extended period of time. Their knowledge of the process was based on years of professional and personal experience with advocacy. Their leadership role led them from preliminary, groundbreaking work to current goal setting and planning efforts designed to sustain the diversity process and build on past achievements regardless of economic vagaries and marketplace shifts that threaten the bottom line. The corporations in Stage 4--Progressing Despite Challenges showed evidence of these characteristics:

1. Diversity leadership is in the hands of the senior vice president of human resources or the director of employee relations.
2. There has been education and training related to diversity over an extended period (up to five years).
3. A written account of the CEO's commitment to diversity appears in corporate documents.
4. The corporation is committed to community outreach and weaves diversity into its community affairs activities.
5. The corporation is troubled by starts and stops related to financial pressures.
6. There is some documentation related to the process.

Stage 5--Exemplary Leadership. There were eight corporations that fell into Stage 5--Exemplary Leadership. Recall that even though these corporations were leaders in the diversity process based on self-reports and reports of their activities in a range of documentation, spokespersons for the corporations generally placed their organizations in the beginning stages of the diversity process. In comparison to other corporations in this sample of 36 corporations, clearly they were leaders based on their commitment and their extensive history of efforts internally and externally to encourage, promote, and sustain diversity within their organizations and in the broader community. By attitude and disposition, these organizational spokespersons reflected a strong and resolved image that is captured in the following statements:

- We want you to know.
- We want recognition.

- We've got the big picture.
- We plan, implement, measure, reward, and celebrate.

The eight corporations in Stage 5--Exemplary Leadership showed evidence of some or all of these characteristics:

1. Diversity leadership is in the hands of the vice president of diversity, the senior vice president of human resources, director of employee relations, director of affirmative action, or work force diversity manager.
2. There has been a long term effort at education and training.
3. Diversity is part of the strategic plan for the organization and there is strategic planning for the diversity process.
4. The corporation can provide a variety of documentation on the process.
5. There are coordinated efforts across functions and levels in the organization.
6. Community relations activities are tied to diversity efforts.
7. The corporation is relatively open to scrutiny.
8. There is evidence of strong CEO commitment to diversity.
9. There is a corporate decision to be an exemplar.
10. The corporation has award-winning efforts.
11. It takes a systemic approach to bringing about change.
12. Diversity leaders are articulate spokespersons.
13. Leadership is diffused throughout the organization.
14. Annual reports and community relations reports are reflective of the commitment to diversity.

Although corporations in each stage may not reflect all of the characteristics listed in the above model, they do exhibit most of them. While the diversity process model emerging from this study cannot be generalized to other corporations, it may be a useful guide for organizations who are benchmarking their policies, practices, and procedures against those of others.

Number of Corporations in Each of the Five Stages of the Diversity Process

Stage		No. of Corporations	%*
1 --	Initial Openness	4	15
2 --	Cautious Movement Forward	5	20
3 --	Taking A Stand	4	15
4 --	Progressing Despite Challenges	5	20
5 --	Exemplary Leadership	8	30

Note. 26 corporations participating in the study
*Approximate

Implementation The third broad research question of this study addressed the range of strategies these corporations had implemented in their organizations by August and September of 1992. In the initial analysis, corporations were rank ordered based on the number of strategies participants cited in the interview process. The average number of strategies participants reported was 28. The range of strategies employed in the 26 corporations participating in the interview process was 6 to 80. Although the corporations cannot be listed by name in respect to confidentiality requirements, it can be noted that the top three corporations with strategies of 50 or more are in Stage 5 of the diversity process as described in an earlier section of this report. The top ten corporations in number of strategies cited are all in Stage 4 or Stage 5 of the diversity process. The bottom seven corporations, those listing less than 14 strategies each, are in Stage 1 or Stage 2 of the diversity process. The corporate spokesperson, who listed 80 strategies in the interview, represents a corporation which was also at the top of the list in the annual report and the community relations report rankings.

In the second step of the analysis of the data related to strategies, the researcher developed five categories of strategies that were inclusive of the range of strategies cited by interview participants. Categories of strategies emerged from the analysis of the individual corporate strategy lists and the strategic planning documents provided by the participants. Diversity strategies generally fell underneath the following five rubrics:

1. leadership and management,
2. education and training,
3. communication,
4. community relations, and
5. assessment and evaluation.

Leadership and Management. Strategies identified in the category of leadership and management were listed and rank-ordered according to the frequency of mention in the 29 interviews. In total, participants cited 95 strategies. The range of strategies cited was 0 to 53. The average number of leadership and management strategies cited was 14.4.

Education and Training. Of the 32 interview participants, only four participants reported that there were no diversity education and training efforts in their organization. Based on information provided in the interviews and documents, diversity education and training can be categorized in five approaches: (1) formal training, (2) informal educational practices, (3) specialized stand-alone training, (4) related training, and (5) support services. Formal training consisted of customized educational efforts directed at particular audiences in the organization including the CEO, executive management, senior management, management, supervisors, employees, new employees, and new managers. Training at the higher levels in the organization frequently involved external consultants. External diversity consultants were active in preparing train the trainer modules that were then used internally to develop in-house expertise. Participants cited 64 education and training strategies. The range of education and training strategies cited by participants was 0 to 14. The average number of education and training strategies cited was 4.8.

Communication. Communication is the rubric for the third category of strategies identified by participants. The largest number of strategies cited by participants are subsumed under leadership and management. Education and training strategies were also cited more frequently by participants. Communication strategies, on the other hand, are mentioned less frequently--on average two strategies cited per interview. Interview participants cited 24 communication strategies. The range of communication strategies cited was 0 to 13. The average number of communication strategies cited was 2.1.

In addition to analyzing interview data, the researcher analyzed two key corporate communication documents--the annual report and the community relations report. An annual report--document analysis form was used as an aid in compiling information on current organizational practices and key initiatives. The annual report--document analysis form is composed of 17 criteria useful in assessing diversity-related practices within organizations. The 17 criteria, in the form of a checklist with questions, address three broad concerns: (1) attention to general human resource issues; (2) photographs depicting diversity in the work force or in the customer base; and (3) description of community relations activities. The average score on the criteria was 7.7 in 1991.

Obviously, an important communication tool for organizations is underutilized. The annual report reaches the organization's stakeholders--customers, employees, shareholders, and the broader community. It could be a vehicle for articulating the organization's commitment to diversity, affirming the importance of human resources, reporting on progress, and evaluating results of work force diversity initiatives. It could be used to communicate a cohesive framework for linking all corporate functions in a comprehensive approach addressing work force diversity issues within the organization and externally through its marketing efforts and its community relations activities. Surprisingly, corporations with extensive histories in diversity initiatives did not all head the ratings list with high marks as expected. Some corporate leaders were not using the annual reports to communicate their commitment to the diversity process.

Documents describing corporate community relations activities were collected from 18 *Fortune 500* corporations. Out of the 33 *Fortune 500* corporations headquartered in Minnesota, only 18 publish a community relations report that is available to the general public. A researcher-designed analysis form used 21 criteria to assess the community relations reports. The criteria focused on two broad areas of concern: (a) corporate commitment to social responsibility and (b) documentation of that commitment through descriptions of programs, special events, volunteerism, and corporate giving. The average rating was 13 out of a possible 21.

Clearly, while organizations were contributing heavily to their communities, they were inadequately reporting the breadth and depth of their commitment. Like the annual report, the community relations

report is a underutilized corporate communications tool. What is disappointing is the lack of content in these reports regarding the corporation's diversity commitment.

Community Relations. Participants cited 86 specific community relations strategies extending diversity practices beyond the confines of the corporation. The analysis of the interview transcriptions resulted in the identification of community relations strategies that ranged by corporation from 0 to 16. The average number of community relations strategies cited was 4.1.

Assessment and Evaluation. Participants identified 33 assessment and evaluation strategies. The range of assessment and evaluation strategies cited was 0 to 15. The average number of assessment and evaluation strategies implemented was 4.7. The fourth broad research question of this study addressed how organizations were evaluating their diversity efforts. An extended discussion of the evaluation process follows this section.

Summary. In total, interview participants cited 302 strategies currently employed in their organizations. While there may be some perceived overlap in categories and some strategies could be subsumed under a larger category, each strategy is distinctive. The list of strategies, based on the self-reports of participants with additional documentation on implementation provided in corporate publications, form an extensive body of activities corporations can pursue. The largest number of strategies cited are in the category of leadership and management. The second largest category by number of strategies cited is community relations. The third largest category by number of strategies is education and training. The fourth largest category is evaluation. The fifth largest category is communications.

Number of Strategies Cited by Category

Category	Number of Strategies	%
1. Leadership and Management	95	31
2. Education and Training	64	21
3. Communications	24	8
4. Community Relations	86	29
5. Evaluation	33	11
	302	100

Evaluations of Diversity Efforts For many corporations, the evaluation of the diversity process within their organizations remains a complex and knotty problem. The diversity process is a constantly evolving series of actions and changes within the organization in response to the interest, needs, and demands of a diverse work force. In each corporation, that continuously evolving goal is established and revised based on the influence of numerous organizational characteristics including climate, culture, history, leadership, work force demography, and financial stability. The conceptualization of the end goal for organizations pursuing a diversity agenda is time-bound and context-bound--changing with the economic, political, and social climate of the times.

Evaluation Methods and Measures. While many corporate representatives struggled with the evaluation process for the diversity efforts within their organizations but were able to describe some measures, five participants did not describe any evaluation methods or criteria. These participants represented corporations who: (a) were in the initial stage of the diversity process, (b) did not focus on measures, or (c) found it difficult to adequately measure the process within their organization. The two diversity evaluation measures most frequently mentioned were data from employee surveys and traditional affirmative action numbers. The four other evaluation methods, measures, or indices of diversity progress within these corporations were focus groups, turnover rates, hiring numbers, and listening to employees. Thirty-three different methods or measures were reported in use in the participating corporations.

Summary. Based on information collected in the interview, observation, and document analysis process, corporate representatives who lead the diversity process within their organizations lacked a clear,

focused diversity evaluation plan that would provide valid, reliable results on current efforts. A few organizations were in the process of benchmarking their efforts, analyzing trends, and identifying key measures for their diversity process. A number of organizations tie management bonuses to evaluation data. Overall, there were few corporate representatives who articulated a comprehensive evaluation plan for their organization. Even corporate leaders with leading-edge human resource policies and practices find it difficult to define and delineate appropriate evaluation methods and measures.

There is no one effective instrument to measure diversity efforts within organizations. Corporate representatives reported the necessity of collecting and analyzing data using both quantitative and qualitative measures. On the foundation of traditional reporting of work force representation by race and gender are data related to the recruitment, hiring, development, and retention of employees. Those numbers provide hard, objective data. These are supplemented with data collected from employees using qualitative methods including surveys, focus groups, and one-on-one interviews evaluating employee satisfaction and organizational climate. Additional data are collected from reviews of policies, practices, and procedures that impact human resources. Findings resulting from the analysis of both streams of data can provide a broad picture and profile of the diversity process within an organization.

Literature Review

The knowledge base for diversity-related research is limited (Adler, 1991; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Cox, 1990; Jackson & Holvino, 1986) while diversity issues in organizations continue to gain prominence as central concerns for human resource professionals and managers (Brown & Davison, 1991; Catalyst, 1990; Jamieson & O'Mara, 1991; Smith, 1989; Towers Perrin & Hudson Institute, 1990). Research on diversity has been fragmented into studies on age, disability, gender, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation. There is a growing effort by some researchers to synthesize the findings from these studies thereby providing a theoretical base to guide organization transformation efforts (Cox, 1993). However, few researchers have been able to theorize across race, gender, and class lines or address, at the same time, issues related to age, disability, and sexuality.

To significantly advance the scholarship on diversity, researchers will need to meld theory from several fields. This requires knowledge of organization transformation, leadership, systems, and feminist theory. In addition, the scholarship on diversity in various disciplines (individual and organizational psychology, intercultural communications, management, and sociology) must be woven together to attain the inclusiveness inherent in the term diversity.

Organization Transformation Across disciplines, scholars have recommended that organizational restructuring, reframing, or transformation move beyond what Albrecht and Brewer (1990) called "singular, monist models of social change" (p. 19). Transformative efforts must increasingly examine the dynamic intersection of race, gender, and class (Alperin, 1990). In addition, management theorists have suggested that single-frame thinking in organizational research has limited the development of theory leading to effective change models (Bolman and Deal, 1991). Organization transformation theorists have suggested that large-scale change (for example, responding effectively to the challenges of work force diversity) requires a holistic, ecological, humanistic approach (Fletcher, 1990). Transformative change requires a paradigm shift, frame-breaking, reshaping the entire nature, climate, and culture of the organization. It addresses deep-seated beliefs, values, and assumptions underlying the culture of the organization.

The organization transformation theorist facilitates the change by creating a humanistically oriented vision for the organization. Buckley and Perkins (1985) outlined a seven-stage process that explains the transformative change process in organizations. The seven stages are unconsciousness, awakening, reordering, translation, commitment, embodiment, and integration. Assuming that work force diversity coupled with other work place trends creates a substantial challenge to organizations, and that previous efforts to address diversity issues effectively have failed, it may be time to heed the organization transformation theorists recommendations. The inability to uproot and transform fundamental beliefs and values undergirding an organization's culture suggests that a fundamental shift in the way an organization works is required. Combining the recommendations of these authors representing different fields, linked only by a vision for organizational change, one can formulate an initial set of guidelines for facilitating change:

1. Use a holistic approach to problem-solving,
2. Reframe issues, solutions, and organizations by using multiple frameworks,
3. Find solutions by matching the questions with appropriate modes of inquiry, and
4. View the process as a journey.

Diversity Work force diversity is a broad-based subject covering a wide range of topics. A modest review of the literature would include a summary of readings focused on work force demographics, recent research studies, and organizational change models with their attendant recommended strategies. The review would include a sampling of information on work force diversity published in reports, research studies, professional journals, magazines, and newspaper articles. The limitations of this article disallow an in-depth analysis of recent publications.

However, it is advised that the reader pursue the literature by focusing initially on demographic projections, current work force statistics, and related data from reports that focus on issues of age, disability, gender, race, religion, and sexual orientation (see Johnston & Packer, 1987; Martin & Ross-Gordon, 1990; Nelton, 1992; Solomon, 1992). This lays the foundation for understanding the complexity of issues involved in any study of work force diversity. In particular, Kelly's (1991) work ties demographic projections and work force statistics together, interprets their impact on the work place, and suggests reasonable strategies based on these interpretations.

Besides profiling the work force through the collection of demographic data and identifying trends in the economy, researchers design studies that examine the status of human resource practices, describe employment discrimination, and explain work place inequities. Researchers conduct diversity surveys, case studies, and increasingly use benchmarking as a research tool (Catalyst, 1990, 1991a, 1991b; Cockburn, 1991; Galagan, 1993; "Managing Diversity," 1992; Nhan, 1993; Towers Perrin & Hudson Institute, 1990; Van Eron, 1992).

Research studies conducted on work force diversity range from a general approach to the topic of work force diversity, surveys of organizational initiatives to address diversity, and case studies of organizations with exemplary practices in relation to women or people of color. The studies focus on a variety of issues including employment discrimination against people of color, public attitudes towards people with disabilities, and foundation grant-making tracked by number of dollars to diverse groups (Chin, 1992; Cosgrove, 1993; Eberhart & Pratt, 1993; Epstein, 1991; "Making The," 1991; Meyers, 1993; Moylan, 1993). Morrison's (1992) study offers a cross-case analysis of organizations with exemplary diversity practices and has some similarities with this researcher's study in that both researchers identify current practices and distill those into a recommended set of strategies.

Adler (1983), Cox (1990), and Jackson and Holvino (1986) described organizations in terms of their response to the influence and impact of work force diversity. They provided definitions of diversity, and each proposed a stage theory related to the developmental phases an organization passes through as it moves towards inclusion and multiculturalism. There are a number of authors who have provided comprehensive plans for creating and sustaining diversity in organizations. The authors who have offered detailed plans with numerous broad-based strategies are Gardenswartz and Rowe (1993), Hayles (1989, 1993), Jamieson and O'Mara (1991), Loden and Rosener (1991), Morrison (1992), and Thomas (1990, 1991). They provide data on the prevalence of work force diversity programs and initiatives, inequities in our work place systems, and the resultant impact on organizations, groups and the individual. The authors, after identifying trends and the current status of responses to work force diversity, generate an action plan with a set of strategies that focus on reducing barriers, circumventing backlash, and providing opportunities for everyone.

To advance human resource practices in U.S. organizations, one needs to understand the current status of the work force and initiatives addressing its diversity. A basic awareness of previous research is required to frame up further studies to expand the knowledge base for diversity. A research-based, developmental model for designing a work force diversity plan is necessary for ensuring effectiveness. A proficient leader needs to have an extensive array of organizational strategies available to strengthen and support individual efforts. A review of the literature along with the findings of the research study offer the reader a research-based, conceptual framework for designing, implementing, and evaluating a work force diversity plan.

Key Findings and Recommendations

1. *Fortune 500* corporations have the resources--both human and financial--to offer leadership in the diversity process. Establish a vision that includes becoming an exemplar for other organizations.
2. Work force diversity is not a human resources program. It is a long-term educational process for the organization and the individuals within the organization. Set long-term and short-term goals.
3. Managers of work force diversity implement, monitor, and evaluate the strategic plan for diversity within their organization. Without leadership and effective management, efforts remain fragmented and

lack cohesion. Assign coordination to a competent leader who can build relationships across functions and levels in the organization.

4. Education and training around diversity issues is effective when it is articulated with all education and training systems within the organization and delivered to all employees including the CEO and entry level workers. Design, develop, and revise training according to your needs.
5. A communications plan maximizes efforts to bring the diversity message to all stakeholders. Include an editorial review process that scrutinizes all corporate documents, especially the annual reports and the community relations reports.
6. Community relations activities tied to organizational diversity goals strengthen the process internally and ensure credibility for corporate efforts in the broader community. Expect employee involvement in a broad range of community outreach activities. Lend expertise.
7. Evaluation of diversity initiatives remains a thorny problem. A clearly focused evaluation plan is a necessity. It includes accountability--rewards for progress. This assists in the creation of an environment wherein diversity can flourish.
8. There is no one diversity plan that is appropriate for all organizations. Strategies need to be implemented based on the unique characteristics of the organization. Reassess the organization frequently. Diversity, by its nature, requires self-reflection, organizationally and individually.

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3. The broadened definition of diversity requires a culture change within organizations. Diversity necessitates changes in management styles, human resource systems, philosophies, and approaches.
4. There is an emphasis on communicating a concept of diversity as more than race and gender and affirmative action and equal employment opportunity.

Work force diversity is defined broadly within *Fortune 500* corporations as evidenced by responses from human resources managers and directors of work force diversity. While many definitions include a list of demographic characteristics that attempts full inclusion of every difference within the work force, definitions commonly extend to implications for individuals and the organization as a whole. There is a general acknowledgment that diversity is an evolving concept with no one knowing with certainty the complete implications of it for the individual and the organization.

Every interview participant defined diversity in a unique and original manner although there were several commonalties. There is no one definitive definition that fully describes the broad range of differences it includes, the evolutionary nature of the process it represents, and the far-reaching impact it has on individuals and corporations.

Evolution of the Diversity Process The evolution of the diversity process is reported in relation to the analyses of data collected from the interviews, observations, and documents and data collected from a diversity continuum form completed by participants. A diversity stage process emerged from the analysis of the data from the three data streams. The diversity continuum findings demonstrate participants' perceptions of the progress their organizations have made in integrating diversity concepts and practices.

Progress on the Diversity Continuum. Thirty-two interview participants representing 26 corporations were asked to complete a diversity continuum data collection form. The researcher asked the participants to place a mark on the continuum that would exemplify their perception of where their organization was at the time of the interview in relation to where they want their organization to be. The participant's mark on the continuum line was given a numeric score on a scale of 0 to 10. The average placement point on the continuum was 2.89 based on 31 responses.

Stages in the Diversity Process. Corporations fell into five groupings reflective of five stages in the diversity process. The first group of corporations were in an initial stage of the diversity process, *Stage 1--Initial Openness*. Corporations in this category are hesitant and resistant to moving ahead. Based on information provided in the interview process, the general position of these four corporations were characterized in the following five short statements that reflect the attitudes of these organizations:

- We want to explore the issue first.
- Wait awhile, this will blow over.
- It won't work here.
- We don't need it.
- We don't want to be the last one either.

In Stage 1--Initial Openness, corporations shared most of the following characteristics:

1. Diversity leadership is in the hands of the senior vice president of human resources.
2. There is no obvious commitment to diversity at the CEO level.
3. There is no education and training in place.
4. There is a degree of openness to the idea of initiating efforts to address diversity beyond basic affirmative action/equal employment opportunity activities.
5. The organization is gathering information on diversity practices.
6. The organization is engaged in informal benchmarking activities related to diversity.

Stage 2--Cautious Movement Forward. In the second stage of the diversity process, corporations were beginning to question previous efforts, assign responsibility for preliminary data gathering, and form task forces to develop goals and plan activities. Five corporations in this stage were characterized in the following statements:

- We need to do something.
- Where do we start?
- How do we gain support across the organization?
- Who will shepherd this?

In Stage 2--Cautious Movement Forward, corporations showed evidence of some or all of the following characteristics:

1. Diversity leadership is in the hands of the senior vice president of human resources or it is assigned to a senior human resources representative.
2. A diversity task force has been formed.
3. There is evidence of initial CEO commitment.

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Race and Ethnicity-Related Cultural Diversity Training Programs: A Typology

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Organizations that experience ethnicity-related problems often identify cultural diversity training as a solution. However, there are multiple approaches and perspectives to such programs and programmatic outcomes will vary considerably with the approach selected. A typology is presented which identifies five types of programs: assimilation-acculturation, cultural awareness, multi-cultural, ethno-centrist, anti-racism.

Almost daily, via the news media, we hear stories of racial strife that result from interracial conflict, miscommunication, and ignorance. Organizations that experience ethnicity-related problems, such as interpersonal conflict, allegations of racism, law suits alleging racial discrimination, high employee turnover among minorities, low rates of professional advancement among minorities, and others, often identify either education or training as a solution. As a result, ethnicity-related cultural diversity education and training programs are becoming an important aspect of organizational life for many employees in U.S. agencies and organizations. In 1994, 56 percent of all organizations sent some employees to a diversity training program, a 40 percent increase since 1992 (Filipczak, 1994). However, the popularity of the programs, i.e., in terms of frequency of offerings, belie the fact that they are poorly understood, and they are among the most controversial training programs offered in the workplace (Filipczak, 1994).

Intended to make the workplace a more accommodating and accepting environment for women, people of color, workers with disabilities, and members of other groups identified historically as being victims of discrimination; these programs have become arenas of contestation. Instead of achieving the goals for which they were established, some of these programs have only served to antagonize, distance, and polarize diverse groups of employees, e.g., the backlash against programs that target white males (Mobley and Payne, 1992). These and other observations suggest that race and ethnicity-related cultural diversity training programs, as part of a broader social movement to improve race relations in the U.S., are at a crossroads. There are multiple approaches and perspectives to such programs and the outcomes experienced by an organization will vary considerably with the approach selected. This paper presents a conceptualization of race and ethnicity-related training programs which captures the variety of approaches currently being implemented in a variety of organizational settings.

Race as a Social Construct in the U.S.

In U.S. society, racial demarcation is endemic to the country's socio-cultural fabric and heritage. That is, its laws and economy, institutionalized structures and discourses, and its epistemologies and everyday customs are effected by the coloration of one's skin and (or) one's ethnic identity (Higginbotham, 1992). Racial and ethnic classifications have become so ingrained in our national psyche that they have become reified in our everyday lives as 'natural' and 'appropriate' ways to distinguish people. Such an ahistorical concept of "race" actually contributes to a lingering subtle but powerful racial ideology that exists as an unacknowledged barrier to equal opportunity in America (Berg, 1993). It does little to explain or critique unequal social relations underlying notions of "race," but it goes a long way to reinforcing the spurious notion that "races" exist as immutable natural entities and that there are thus natural origins to social differences. The ideology of "racial" difference allows more powerful social groups to maintain their hegemonic position through prejudice and discrimination (Higginbotham, 1992; Castex, 1994; Solomos and Back, 1994).

"Race" is still used by the federal government, academic institutions, businesses and other social agencies as a means to classify various groupings of people in the United States. This continued usage belie the fact that chromosome research reveals the fallacy of race as an accurate measure of genotypic

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or phenotypic difference between human beings, and both cross-cultural and historical studies of miscegenation law reveal shifting, arbitrary, and contradictory definitions of race (Higginbotham, 1992). The current federal categories for both race and ethnicity, which are employed by the U.S. Census Bureau, were developed during the 1970s (Lott, 1994). They recognize four minimum "race" categories: white, Black, American Indian or Alaskan Native, and Asian or Pacific Islander. Only two minimum "ethnic" categories were identified: "Hispanic origin" and "not of Hispanic origin."

Based on these classifications, demographers have determined that modern society is apparently undergoing a historic transition from a predominately white society rooted in Western culture to a global society composed of diverse racial and ethnic minorities (O'Hare, 1993). According to the latest Census Bureau projections, by the 21st century today's racial and ethnic minorities who now comprise about twenty-five percent of the U.S. population will comprise nearly one-half of all Americans. In the next century, African Americans, Asians, and Latinos will outnumber whites in the U.S. More importantly, the rapid growth in the number of minorities has been marked by an increasing diversity in terms of language differences, and cultural beliefs and practices within these population groups as new immigrant groups from the 1980s (such as Vietnamese, Cambodians, Dominicans, and Nicaraguans) have joined earlier immigrant groups of Mexican Americans, Cuban Americans, Chinese Americans, and Japanese (O'Hare, 1993). Also, by 2010, Hispanics are expected to supplant African Americans as the nation's largest minority group.

The Rationale for Diversity Programs

Ethnicity-related cultural diversity programs are often initiated in response to several imperatives that define interrelated trends and issues that are prominent in post-modernist U.S. society. A *demographic imperative* confronts most organizations and agencies. The demographic trends presented above will have almost immediate effects on the makeup of the U.S. labor force. By 2005 the labor force is projected to expand twenty-six percent to 151 million workers (Fullerton Jr. 1993). This labor force will be comprised of about five percent fewer white males and an equal percentage of more minorities: white males (38%), white females (35%), African-Americans (12%), Hispanics (11%), and Other (4%). Also, the U.S. labor pool of appropriately skilled workers is expanding at a slower pace than the demand for their labor, thereby creating more intense competition for talent.

These trends not only indicate a growing importance of racial and ethnic minorities to the nation's well-being, but they signify profound implications for the workplaces of most organizations. The management of organizations can respond to this reality by either ignoring it and as a consequence use only a portion of their human resources, or they can face the inevitable challenge and learn to manage a diverse work force. Many organizations have reacted by attempting to redefine old definitions of "fit" and are increasingly employing people from different ethnic and cultural origins (Fine, et al. 1990). However, once they have hired these individuals they are discovering that they must compete with other similar organizations to retain them and keep them motivated.

An *economic imperative* results from the fact that the significant increase in the populations of people of color also effects "market place" demands. Although whites continue to outstrip minorities on most indicators of wealth, possessing $44,400 in median net worth for all households in 1988 compared to $3,800 for African Americans, and $5,500 for Hispanics. For married-couple households, the median net worth increased to $61,400 for Whites, but only rose to $14,900 for African Americans, and $12,300 for Hispanics (O' Hare, 1993). However, a growing segment of minorities are achieving affluence within mainstream society. The number of minorities in the highest income categories nearly doubled during the 1980s (O' Hare, 1993). Also, according to the Population Reference Bureau, African Americans, Asians, and Latinos currently make up about 21 percent of the U.S. consumer base and they are expected to reach 25 percent by the year 2000. Minority markets now buy more than Canada or any of the other countries with which the U.S. trades. In 1990 they spent about $424 billion and they are expected to reach $650 billion by the year 2000. A culturally sensitive, diverse work force enables organizations to better understand and serve these diverse customers: consumers, clients, students, patients, victims, constituents, parishioners, or others.

A *social imperative* is also a reality for society at large and a great many organizations. People of color are often cited among the poorest, least educated, more criminally inclined, and most victimized populations in the U.S. (Wilson, 1987; and Hacker, 1992). However, today's people of color are also much more likely than previous generations to celebrate their own individuality and uniqueness and to demand respect and equal treatment when they encounter mainstream institutions. In progressive organizations, valuing diversity and managing differences is not just EEO-driven, but supported strongly by management.

A *leadership imperative* is an element in the new formula for management training. It suggests that individuals who have learned to function in diverse situations tend to develop superior cross-cultural communication skills, become better leaders, and develop better skills at giving and receiving feedback. Also, good management depends on effectively working with other people by understanding and appreciating differences in values and perspectives as well as simple differences of opinion (Morrison, 1992).

A *legal imperative* results from the fact that antidiscrimination laws have provided people of color access to educational institutions and occupations that were once closed to them because of blatant discrimination. While affirmative action legislation provided access to opportunities, it did little to address the underlying assumptions and stereotypes that plagued nontraditional employees and created barriers to advancement that persist today, e.g., people of color are viewed as inferior in intellect, training, and motivation (Morrison, 1992). As a consequence people of color have sought redress through the courts. However, discrimination lawsuits are monetarily expensive to the offending agencies and organizations, negatively impact market initiatives, and project to the community-at-large an unfriendly and/or hostile working and learning environment.

Although cultural diversity training programs are often initiated in response to one or more of these imperatives, the programs do not often accomplish the goals for which they were developed. Organizational initiatives seeking to remedy ethnicity-related organizational problems often fail to differentiate from among the many types of diversity educational and training options available to them.

Types of Programs

Ethnicity-related diversity training programs were first employed by K-12 school systems to help the educational establishment to cope with the influx of students whose cultural orientations and languages differed substantially from the norms set by white mainstream culture. The programs that were developed differed markedly in terms of philosophical orientation and approaches to dealing with such students. Sleeter and Grant (1994) provided an elaborate five-approach typology which captured these different approaches. It included: the human capital theory of education and society, human relations, single-group studies, multi-cultural education, and education that is multi-cultural and social reconstructionist.

Within the arena of corporate training programs, Morrison (1992) observed that several typologies describing the variety of approaches that organizational leaders have employed to deal with diversity-related issues were developed by Palmer in 1989 and Kim in 1991. Morrison's (1992) model incorporated the two previous models and briefly described five approaches to cultural diversity and their underlying assumptions: golden rule, assimilation, righting the wrongs, culture-specific, and multicultural.

The models presented above, and a review of the adult education literature on cultural diversity education and training programs suggest that five types of cultural diversity training programs are currently being implemented in corporate training and other organizational settings: assimilation-acculturation, cultural awareness, multi-cultural, ethno-centrist, and anti-racism. These types of programs will be described in regard to six variables: underlying assumptions, educational goal, clients, program content, mode of delivery, and criteria for success.

Assimilation-Acculturation The conventional approach to diversity in the U.S. has been Assimilation-Acculturation. Newcomers are expected to adapt so that they can "fit" into the existing organizational structure and culture. In this regard educational and training efforts are designed to help people of color and language minorities to improve academic participation and performance via deficiency reduction. Managers and human resource professionals believe that their company's culture evolved over the years in response to business realities, and that it is only reasonable to expect employees

to conform (Thomas, Jr. 1991). They thereby reason that assimilation ensures unity and common purpose; without it chaos would reign. Therefore they seek to help minority workers to reduce deficiencies that may result from impoverished conditions or deficient cultures in order to improve their cognitive skills, information analysis and processing skills, language skills, and values to the levels required to function adequately in the existing organizational culture.

Sleeter and Grant (1994) argue that this approach is based on the "human capital theory of society" which holds that education is a form of investment. The individual acquires skills and knowledge that can be converted into income when used to acquire employment. This theory suggests that the poor are poor mainly because they have not developed their human capital. Poverty and inequality result from insufficient opportunities for people of color to acquire the knowledge and skills society needs.

The content of these programs is often derived from discipline-based knowledge and is therefore often irrelevant to the students' background experiences. However, the content attempts to remediate the learners' gaps in basic skills and knowledge. These programs are most often delivered via: adult basic education and adult secondary education classes that target low-literate learners, English as a Second Language classes for second language learners, and other remedial programmatic efforts. For example, in 1991 over 20 percent of all organizations with 100 or more employees offered "basic skills" courses in reading, writing, math, or English as a second language (Filipczak (1994). These programs are considered successful if they result in improved retention, increased academic (and academically-related) performance, and promotion of people of color within the existing structure and culture of the sponsoring organizations.

In the past, employees have been willing to pay the price of admission, that is, the loss of their ethnic identities when they enter the door of the corporation. However, increasingly minorities are expressing resistance to the notion of assimilation. Thomas, Jr., (1991) explained the dilemma faced by many minority employees who are never quite comfortable with their assimilated status. He argued that they must live in two worlds, and they are uncomfortable in both. Because they want to fit in they focus on identifying and cooperating with both spoken and unspoken cultural norms. They seek to play it safe by avoiding situations and suggestions that reflect their "differences". Consequently their personal strengths and(or) innovative ideas are stifled and their work performance suffers. For many minorities, in a competitive work environment, the strategy of assimilation that is devoid of other culturally relevant approaches and content is stifling and deadly.

Cultural Awareness Cultural awareness programs are among the most popular efforts that are usually linked to diversity training. They are designed to promote feelings of unity, tolerance, and acceptance within the existing organizational culture and structure. Sleeter and Grant (1994) identified these efforts with the "human relations approach", Morrison (1992) identified them as consistent with the "golden rule approach" to diversity, whereas Thomas Jr. (1991) identified it as "Valuing Differences". These texts agree that this approach seeks to: 1) help individuals communicate with, accept, and get along with people who are different from themselves by fostering awareness and acceptance of individual differences, 2) reduce stereotypes that individuals have about people by helping participants understand their own feelings and attitudes about people who are "different", 3) help individuals to feel good about themselves and about the groups of which they are members, without putting others down in the process, 4) explore how differences might be tapped as assets in the workplace, and 5) enhance work relations between people who are different. Some proponents of this approach relate it directly to the study of prejudice and intergroup hostility (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). They argue that because so many complex factors, e.g., home background, social situations, health, income, intelligence, and aspirations, affect human interaction and human relationships, this approach must take into account each individual's total personality.

Advocates of this approach believe that the attitudes and feelings people have about themselves and others should be targeted in order to replace tension and hostility with acceptance and care. They argue that the values promulgated via this approach should be fostered in everyone in order to transform the culture of the workplace. Therefore the clients for these efforts are usually everyone in the organization, with special efforts directed at straight white American males (SWAMs). The programs assume that dysfunctional behavior and attitudes derive from a lack of awareness and understanding and therefore they attempt to provide content that includes: a) examining the social groups of which one is a member and the views society has of these groups, b) examining friendship groups, the meaning of

group membership, and group skills, and c) developing attitudes of acceptance and friendship between groups (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). They are usually delivered via staff development training for employees, video-taped programs, field trips, and other culturally unique experiences. The programs are considered successful if people of color experience increased feelings of inclusion and acceptance, and if the sponsoring organization experiences fewer complaints of racism and/or racism related law suits. However, Thomas Jr. (1991) argues that acceptance, tolerance, and understanding of diversity are not by themselves enough to create an empowered work force. He thereby argues that only the multi-cultural approach to diversity is sufficient to empower a multiracial work force to reach its full potential.

Multi-Cultural Multi-cultural programs (described as "managing diversity" by Thomas, Jr., (1991)) seek to promote socio-structural equality and cultural pluralism within organizations by more effectively managing diversity. This approach seeks to identify those elements of the organization's culture that are the fundamental roots to corporate behaviors, determine whether the root values support or hinder the aspirations for managing diversity, and change the cultural roots that are hindrances (Thomas Jr., 1991). Therefore the explicit goal within sponsoring organizations is to strengthen the organization by leveraging a host of significant differences (Morrison, 1992). It grows out of a concern that sponsoring organizations as they currently exist are unfair and detrimental to many people. Equal opportunity is not afforded to every citizen. For example, all ethnic and language groups are expected to display the behavioral and linguistic style of White, middle-class Americans before they are taken seriously (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). Theories of cultural transmission, social learning, and modeling provide insight into the processes people use to acquire values and beliefs.

This approach assumes that the socio-cultural environment of the organization must change and that the new norms must accommodate all employees (Morrison, 1992; and Thomas, Jr. 1991). The clients of these programs tend to be the same as those for *cultural awareness* programs with an increased emphasis on managers. Within work place organizations, multi-cultural programs are designed to infuse an approach to diversity at three levels of the organization simultaneously: individual, interpersonal and organizational. It approaches diversity from a management perspective by addressing issues relevant to how the organization is managed in order to create an environment in which all employees can reach their full potential. It views adaptation as a mutual process between the individual and the sponsoring organization, and requires a fundamental change in the organization's way of life. Management training and staff development programs are usually developed and implemented to acclimate all employees to the socio-cultural and structural changes. These programs are implemented via long-range (5-year) organizational planning efforts. They are considered successful if the management and employees are able to demonstrate that the corporate system and the root culture of the organization have been adjusted to obtain the highest productivity possible from a multiracial work force (Thomas Jr., 1991).

Ethno-Centrist Ethno-centric programs seek empowerment via the promotion of socio-structural equality, intra-group pride for individual ethnic populations, and broader recognition of the contributions and characteristics a particular ethnic group brings to mainstream American culture. Advocates of ethno-centric programs, which are identified as "single-group studies" by Sleeter and Grant (1994), seek greater power and control over economic and cultural resources for their particular ethnic group. They argue that often oppressed ethnic group members uncritically accept the status-quo and mainstream messages that depict negative images of the members of their own group. They are often taught that members of their ethnic group rarely make notable achievements, contributions, or political decisions, therefore, members of the group often see themselves as powerless and worthless. Yet they are told that in a free and democratic society, everyone can achieve to the level of his/her own personal potential. This approach thereby lays the foundation for social action by providing information about the group and the effects of past and present discrimination on the group. For example, Afrocentricity is a theory of social change and a method of analysis similar to "phenomenology". It evolves from an analysis and understanding of how African Americans experience the world they live in. Therefore, it is a viable tool for African Americans to solve complex problems relevant to them, e.g., Reagan-Bush "trickle-down" economics, the L.A. riots, the encroaching threat of AIDS, etc. (Fitchue, 1993).

These programs target everyone, but often seek the inclusion of members of the targeted ethnic group, e.g., African Americans, American Indians, Latinos, etc. The programs provide content on the culture of a particular group, how the group has been victimized by the mainstream society, and current social issues facing the group (i.e., from that group's perspective). These programs are delivered via

classes, workshops, staff development programs, and the development of institutions and programs, e.g., Afro-American Studies, American Indian Studies, etc. for particular ethnic groups and language minorities. The programs are considered successful if participants demonstrate a "critical consciousness" of the targeted ethnic group's social and economic status and accomplishments, their struggle against oppression, and (for members of the targeted group) increased racial pride. Although these types of programs can be found within educational institutions, they are rare in corporate settings (if they exist at all).

Anti-Racism Anti-racism programs are designed to promote social reconstruction and perspective transformation to eliminate oppression of one racial group by another. This approach deals more directly with oppression and socio-structural inequality than the other approaches presented above. For example, Ogbu (1993) observed that people of color are routinely denied equal access to quality education through societal and community educational practices, and they are denied adequate and/or equal rewards with whites for their educational accomplishments through job ceilings and other mechanisms. Schools further contribute to this unequal treatment via policies and practices, e.g., tracking, biased testing and curricula, and misclassification. Identifying this approach as "education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist", Sleeter and Grant (1994) argue that the programs work toward social justice by teaching political literacy. They seek to help people of color to understand how their ascribed characteristics (e.g., race, class, gender, etc.) and their culture impact on their oppression. This insight should lead them to develop the power and skills to articulate both their own goals and a vision of social justice for all groups, and to work toward these ends.

Anti-racism programs target a variety of clients both within the broader society and within sponsoring organizations. The content for these efforts is organized around race-related issues, utilize students' life experiences as starting points for analyzing oppression, teach critical thinking skills, analyzes alternative viewpoints, and teach social action and empowerment skills. These programs are delivered to clients via incorporation into existing classes (e.g., literacy classes) and staff development programs for managers and workers. The programs are considered successful when a significant decrease in socio-economic barriers for people of color is observed and the proverbial "glass ceiling" is removed. However, like "ethno-centric" programs, these types of programs are rare within corporate settings.

Discussion

During the latter half of the twentieth century both race and ethnicity have emerged as key symbolic issues in highly contested areas of power and influence, such as opportunities for equitable employment and promotion, educational achievement and advancement, and others. As the demographic composition of the workplace has continued to evolve into a multiracial work environment, race and ethnicity problems have been increasingly viewed by management as a significant barrier to productivity. Consequently cultural diversity training programs have emerged as a solution to such problems. However, the most prominent approaches employed in corporate training settings are the top-down management-driven "assimilation-acculturation" and "cultural awareness" approaches to diversity training. These approaches share some common characteristics as learning programs. These programs: a) are easily accommodated by the structural-functionalist approach to education which emphasizes objective, scientifically derived knowledge to develop, implement and evaluate training efforts, b) allow the corporate hierarchy to maintain control of the planning process to the exclusion of potential learners' involvement, c) focus on the individual as opposed to including organizational structures and corporate values as the targets of change, and d) focus on "instrumental" learning outcomes as opposed to either "communicative" or "emancipatory" learning (Mezirow, 1991).

Race-related problems are problems of the heart. They involve deeply held (often tacit) beliefs, attitudes and values about entire groupings of people who are different. The subjective ideas individuals hold about others are not subject to accurate measurement and testing. Therefore, they do not lend themselves to being effectively addressed by the structural-functionalist approach to education and training that is employed by many human resource practitioners. Race-related topics are more conducive to an interpretivist framework that is applied via communicative learning approachs in which the learner actively and purposefully negotiates his/her way through a series of specific encounters by using language

and gesture and by anticipating the actions of others (Mezirow, 1991). Of the five approaches presented above, the "multi-cultural" approach comes closest to what is likely management's ideal for effective diversity training in the workplace. That is, it advocates an interpretivist perspective which seeks to diagnose and understand individuals as they exist within the organization's structure and culture in order to create more stable relationships to the benefit of the organization. It advocates learner involvement in planning decisions, focuses on both individuals and organizational structure and culture, and targets communicative learning outcomes.

In addition, both the "ethno-centrist" and "anti-racism" approaches can make significant contributions to the reduction of workplace-based racism. For example, Ponterotto (1988) proposes an ethno-centric four-stage development model for white counselor trainees in which trainees come to acknowledge and accept their own racial identity as well as that of minority individuals. Also, anti-racism training for white educational professionals has been proposed by Corvin and Wiggins (1989), Kailin (1994), and others. However, these types of diversity training programs tend to be viewed by corporate management as high risk and only marginally related to workplace productivity. Because these approaches advocate a "critical" view of education and training they can result in significant transformative learning experiences for individuals who may then seek to address structural and cultural organizational changes.

Conclusion

In efforts to effectively manage multi-racial workplace environments, corporate managers and HRD professionals have utilized only a limited number of diversity training approaches at their disposal. Although assimilation-accuration and cultural awareness type programs might appeal to management's sense of tradition and organizational control, they are the least likely of the five frameworks to provide long-term relief from the racial strife that stimulated their development. The most promising types of programs are those that promote socio-cultural equality and cultural pluralism within the organization, that is, multi-cultural programs. These programs target not only individuals but also the traditions, structure and culture of the sponsoring organization in order to identify and extirpate barriers to developing effective work environment for all employees. The ethno-centrist and anti-racism approaches are appealing in that they focus on developing a stronger knowledge-base of one's racial-ethnic group identification, and they seek to help learners identify how their taken-for-granted attitudes and values can have a racist effect. Although these programs are not currently popular in current workplace training efforts, they appear to be a logical "next step" in efforts to increase multi-racial understanding, and maintain productive work environments.

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